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DYNAMIC FRACTURE ANALYSIS OF NOTCHED BEND SPECIMENS.(U)

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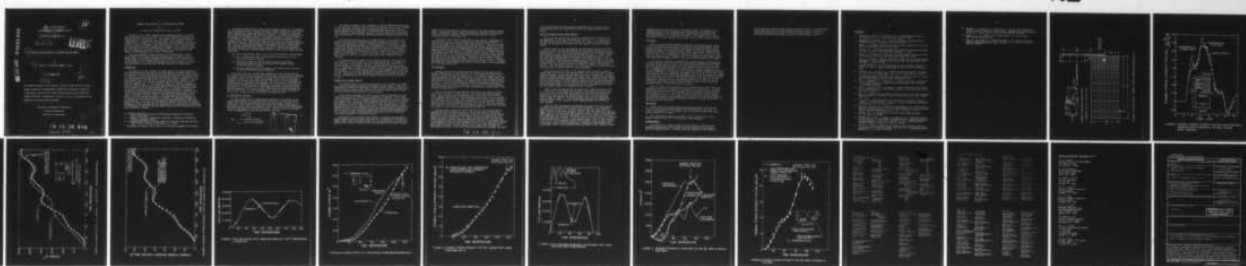
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Technical Report, No. 33

TR-33

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October 1978

27p.

LEVEL II

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DYNAMIC FRACTURE ANALYSIS OF NOTCHED BEND SPECIMENS

by

S. Mall*, A.S. Kobayashi**, and F.J. Loss***

A dynamic finite element code was used to determine dynamic initiation fracture toughness, K_{Id} , in 25.4 mm (1 in.) thick notched bend specimens of A533 B steel and a 15.9 mm (5/8 in.) thick dynamic tear (DT) specimen of 6061 aluminum alloy. These specimen types can reflect varying dynamic fracture response due to differences in test temperature, specimen geometry and material as well as notch tip sharpness. Measured load-time histories were applied to the tup as modeled by finite elements and the dynamic stress intensity factor was computed by a calibrated COD procedure. Dynamic stress intensity factors were also computed by the ASTM E-399 procedure using a load based on local dynamic strain measurements and a static K-calibration.

Reasonable agreements between measured and computed dynamic strains in the vicinity of the crack tip verified the accuracy of the dynamic finite element model. The attendant agreement between measured versus computed time-varying dynamic stress intensity factors also verified, for the first time, the applicability of the ASTM E-399 procedure for computing dynamic initiation fracture toughness, K_{Id} on the basis of local dynamic strain measurements.

INTRODUCTION

The dynamic tear (DT) specimen is a simple dynamically loaded three-point bend specimen which was developed by the Naval Research Laboratory (NRL)[1,2,3][†] to characterize the fracture resistance of ductile material by an energy criterion. As a result of extensive experimental investigation, empirical correlations were also made between the DT energy (DTE) and the static fracture toughness, K_{IC} , for high-strength steels that are not strain-rate sensitive [4]. Research is also under way to establish a correlation between the DTE and dynamic initiation fracture toughness, K_{Id} . In this regards, an empirical correlation between DTE and K_{Id} at the nil-ductility transition (NDT) temperature has been obtained and the size effect on DTE has been established [3]. In a parallel research effort to the above, theoretical and experimental analyses were made on the dynamic responses of DT specimen and the associated loading system [5] in order to establish the relationship between hammer force and specimen bending moment during impact. With these studies as a basis, later NRL research [6] focused on an analysis of forces and bending moments in an ASTM E-399 type bend specimen [7]. The objective of the latter program was to establish an experimental method for K_{Id} measurements. The results of the preceeding programs showed that the instantaneous tup load at fracture cannot be directly related to the K_{Id} of the material. Furthermore, it was concluded that the measurement of K_{Id} required that the specimen be instrumented to determine the local dynamic state of stress surrounding the crack tip at the time of fracture.

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[†] The numbers in brackets refer to the list of references appended to this paper.

As another parallel effort in analyzing the dynamic response of a DT specimen, one of the writers and his colleague initiated a dynamic photoelastic study [8] of the DT specimen [9]. More recently, two of the writers extended this study and used a combined experimental and numerical procedure, i.e. dynamic photoelasticity and dynamic finite element analysis, to determine the dynamic fracture responses of DT specimens machined from brittle and ductile photoelastic polymers, i.e. 9.5 mm (3/8 in.) thick Homalite-100 plates [10] and 3.2 mm (1/8 in.) thick polycarbonate plates [11], respectively. Despite its thinness and pronounced ductility under static loading, the polycarbonate DT specimens exhibited cleavage fracture thus providing a phenomenological model of the dynamic response in a low-carbon steel bend specimen in the linear elastic regime, i.e. near the NDT temperature. The results of the above combined dynamic photoelastic and finite element analyses showed that:

- (1) K_{I_d} is approximately equal to K_{I_C} of the brittle Homalite-100 specimens.
- (2) K_{I_d} is approximately equal to 65 percent of the pop-in K_{I_C} of the ductile polycarbonate specimen.
- (3) The kinetic energy at complete specimen fracture represents a significant portion of the total external work imparted to both brittle and ductile specimens.
- (4) K_{I_d} can be determined from the dynamic strain measured near the crack tip for both brittle and ductile specimens.

The fourth conclusion resulted from a comparison of K_{I_d} obtained directly from dynamic photoelasticity and dynamic finite element analysis with that obtained by a dynamic finite element modeling of the experimental procedure where K_{I_d} is computed, following Loss [6], from a local dynamic strain value using a static calibration of the three-point bend specimen. The success of Loss' procedure in determining K_{I_d} in photoelastic DT specimens led to the present investigation for verifying this approach when used to determine K_{I_d} in actual steel and aluminum bend specimens. In our analysis of these opaque specimens, photoelasticity was replaced by dynamic finite element analysis. The latter was used to determine the local transient state of stress surrounding the crack tip as well to determine K_{I_d} directly. Results of this investigation are summarized here.

K_{I_d} EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

The NRL procedure [6] for experimental determination of K_{I_d} hinges on the correct interpretation of the specimen fracture behavior utilizing the dynamic response of a strain gage mounted near the crack tip as shown in Figure 1. A strain gage in this location is employed to define the dynamic bending moment or equivalent mid-span load on the specimen. Prior to impact loading of the specimen, the strain gage output is statically calibrated. This calibration has provided linear correspondence with the mid-span load for β where

$$\beta = \frac{1}{B} \left(\frac{K_I}{\sigma_{ys}} \right)^2$$

and

B = specimen thickness

σ_{ys} = static yield strength



(1)

The primary assumption in this procedure is that the ASTM E-399 relationship [7] for the stress intensity factor K_I , which has been derived for static loading, is also applicable to dynamic impact loading provided that correct value for dynamic specimen load is employed. A calibrated strain gage close to the crack tip is believed to be an accurate indicator of mid-span load and yet not reflect the confusing inertial loads that would be sensed by a transducer mounted on the tup.

The experimental method relies on a sudden (pop-in) crack extension that enables K_{ID} to be readily computed from the strain gage vs time record. The pop-in is accompanied by a region of cleavage on the fracture surface. A test is therefore considered meaningful by this method only if a macroscopic examination of the fracture surface indicates the absence of ductile crack extension adjoining the fatigue precrack of the specimen. In other words, any ductile tearing that precedes the cleavage pop-in would indicate that crack initiation began in a stable manner, i.e., with rising load. Thus, the occurrence of a pop-in later in time can no longer be equated with the initiation of crack extension.

The above procedure is empirical and therefore requires a firm analytical basis before it can be accepted as a viable experimental tool. For example, if the strain gage is not properly located, its output may sense strains due to inertial effects or reflected stress waves that preclude accurate measurement of K_I . Consequently, a dynamic finite element analysis was performed to validate the procedure. In the finite element analysis, K_I was computed as a function of time on the basis of an input loading taken from the measured record of tup load vs time. The validity of the experimental procedure is assessed by the degree of its correspondence with the finite element calculation of K_I as a function of time.

DYNAMIC FINITE ELEMENT ANALYSIS

The procedure used is a two-dimensional, dynamic finite element code, HONDO [12], which was updated and modified for dynamic fracture analysis. The basic modifications consisted of algorithms for startup and for computing dynamic stress intensity factor, dynamic energy release rate, fracture energy, kinetic energy and strain energy at each increment of crack advance.

In the startup procedure, the initial static stress distribution in a pre-loaded structure prior to dynamic crack propagation is computed. This initial stress distribution must be in complete static equilibrium prior to the initiation of a dynamic event. The finite element breakdown and hence the initial stiffness matrix used in this preliminary static analysis should be identical to those at the initiation or at the instant of time $t=0+$ in the dynamic analysis. Close attention must be given to computational details such as matching the 2x2 Gaussian integration points in the preliminary static and subsequent dynamic analyses in order to avoid any small differences between the finite element algorithms which will be sensed as unequilibrated residual stresses and thus set off parasitic stress wave propagation in the dynamic analysis.

The dynamic stress intensity factor can then be computed from the dynamic energy release rate using Freund's relation [13]. Alternatively, the near field dynamic stress field as derived by King et al. [14] can be used to calculate the dynamic stress intensity factor directly from the numerically obtained stresses

either at the closest Gaussian integration point or the crack opening displacements. The appropriateness of these procedures for computing a dynamic stress intensity factor was checked by analyzing the Broberg problem [15] and is discussed in detail in Reference [16].

Since the primary concern in this paper is the increase in dynamic stress intensity factor prior to crack extension, the crack opening displacement (COD) at the second node (not the closest node) adjacent to the crack tip node was used for computing the dynamic stress intensity factor. While the accuracy of K_{Id} determination using the computed COD of the second node adjacent to the crack tip node was within +5% of the theoretical value of a Broberg crack, no comparable accuracy assessment of the authors' dynamic finite element algorithm for a dynamically loaded stationary crack was made in the past. Thus, the Chen problem [17], which is a centrally cracked strip with step-loaded edge tension, was used for this accuracy assessment. The dynamic stress intensity factors thus obtained by the authors and those of Chen are shown in Figure 2. Although some minor deviations between the fine-grid results and Chen's results are noted, the former are in good agreement with similar finite element results by Anderson, et al. [18] and Glazik [19].

TEST SPECIMENS

The two steel and one aluminum specimens analyzed in this paper are the standard ASTM specimens of the 25.4 mm (1 in.) thick bend-type [7] and the 15.9 mm (5/8 in.) thick DT-type [9], respectively. The legends in Figures 1 and 3 show the geometries of these specimens as well as the finite element nodal breakdowns used in the dynamic analysis. The finite element nodal breakdown used in the first A533 B steel specimen was 156 elements and was coarser than that shown in Figure 1. Since the load transducer on the tup was mounted away from the impact point with the specimen, a portion of the tup was also incorporated into the finite element model in order to reduce the ambiguity in dynamic loads transmitted to the specimen [18].

The two steel specimens were machined from A533 B steel and were fatigue-precracked to a nominal 1.5 mm (0.060 in.) crack length beyond the machined notch. These specimens were instrumented with a 3 mm x 3 mm (1/8 in. x 1/8 in.) strain gage near the notch tip. The strain gage output versus time was recorded on a transient recorder and the time of fracture was assessed by the discontinuity in strain gage traces as related to a cleavage pop-in of the specimen. Strain gages were also placed approximately 50 mm (2 in.) from the tup tip on the center line of the tup to monitor the transient loading condition. These steel specimens were tested in a drop weight testing machine at the NRL [6].

The experimental results for the 15.9 mm (5/8 in.) thick aluminum 6061 DT specimen were taken from Reference [19]. The tup configuration and loading machine for the test differed substantially from that of the drop weight machine used for the steel specimens and this made it difficult to model with our two-dimensional finite element code. As a result, the precalibrated transient tup load as provided in Reference [20] was prescribed directly onto the impact point of the specimen without the finite element model of the tup. The aluminum specimen was instrumented with two 3 mm x 6 mm (1/8 in. x 1/4 in.) strain gages at the locations shown in Figure 3 and the transient strain signals were recorded on a dual-beam oscilloscope. Unlike the fatigue pre-cracked steel specimens, the notch

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in this aluminum specimen was mechanically sharpened to a tip radius of less than 0.025 mm (0.001 in.) radius and was tested in a double-pendulum impact machine.

RESULTS OF DYNAMIC FINITE ELEMENT ANALYSIS

The first steel specimen was tested at a temperature of 10°C (50°F). The NDT temperature for this heat of A533-B steel was -18°C (0°F). The specimen was impacted by a steel weight at a velocity of 2.5 m/sec. Using the time to fracture, an average K_I of $2.7 \text{ MPa}\sqrt{\text{m}} \text{ sec}^{-1}$ was computed from the strain gage record.

Figure 4 shows the tup load computed from the measured dynamic strains in the tup during this test and the idealized tup load used in the dynamic finite element analysis. The idealized tup load was assumed to be uniformly distributed across the end section of the idealized tup shown in Figure 1. Figure 5 shows the reasonable agreement between the measured and computed dynamic strains at the strain gage location which is also shown in the legend of Figure 1. The surface strain was evaluated from the computed dynamic state of stress using a plane stress assumption. The sharp drop in measured dynamic strain signifies the onset of dynamic crack propagation which was not modeled in dynamic finite element analysis. Thus the computed dynamic strain associated with the assumed stationary crack continues to increase after this crack propagation.

Having verified the accuracy of the computed dynamic strain at a specific location near the crack tip, the computed dynamic strain was then used to further compute the dynamic stress intensity factor using Loss' procedure [6]. Figure 6 shows the excellent agreement between the dynamic stress intensity factor computed directly from COD and that computed from the numerically determined dynamic strain. The lack of precipitous drop after dynamic fracture initiation in the two dynamic stress intensity factors is due to the fact that the crack remained stationary in the finite element model since the objective of this investigation was to study only the dynamic response up to dynamic fracture initiation.

Figure 7 shows the measured and the idealized tup loads during the DT test at -17.7°C (0°F) for the second steel specimen. The loading rate was the same as for the first steel specimen but fracture initiated 232 microseconds after impact and is about half of the loading period of the first steel specimen. Figure 8 shows the computed and measured dynamic strains at the strain gage location shown in Figure 1. Figure 9 shows again the excellent agreement between the dynamic stress intensity factors computed directly from COD and by Loss' procedure.

Figure 10 shows the measured and idealized tup loads during the DT test at presumably room temperature for the 6061 aluminum specimen. This specimen was impact loaded at a velocity of 8.6 m/sec which was more than three times the impact velocity for the steel specimens. Figure 11 shows the computed and measured dynamic strains at the two strain gage locations shown in Figure 2. Note that these strain gages were not located at the geometrically similar position of the previously discussed steel specimens. The lack of strain oscillations, which is prominent in the measured dynamic strains, in the computed dynamic strain at gage location 2 as well as the lack of agreement between the two dynamic strains at gage location 1, are noted. Despite these discrepancies in computed and experimentally determined dynamic strains, good agreement between the dynamic stress intensity factors

computed directly by COD and by Loss' procedure is noted. The dynamic stress intensity factor was also computed by Loss' procedure using the numerically determined dynamic strain at the equivalent gage location considered in the two steel specimens, i.e. location 3 in Figure 11. This dynamic stress intensity factor is in good agreement with the other dynamic stress intensity factors.

DISCUSSION

While excellent agreement between the measured and computed dynamic strains in the steel specimens were noted, this comparison differed considerably in the aluminum specimen. This discrepancy could possibly be generated by the dynamic interaction between the compliant specimen support system of the double pendulum impact machine which is not modeled in the finite element model. Another source of error could be the development of significant plastic yield zone, at the blunt notch tip, which also is not modeled in this elasto-dynamic finite element analysis. Such elasto-plastic dynamic analysis should be a natural follow-on to this paper.

In using Loss' procedure to determine K_{ID} in bend specimens of different proportions, one should note that the stress wave velocity and nominally the dynamic initiation stress intensity factor, K_{ID} , are presumably material properties and thus are invariant with specimen size. Since the plastic zone size at the crack tip in somewhat brittle materials is proportional to β given by equation (1), it is also independent of specimen size. The reasonable agreement between K_{ID} obtained directly by COD and Loss' procedure thus suggests that for larger A533 B steel specimens tested at the same temperature, the dynamic strains for K_{ID} calculation, regardless of specimen size, could be measured approximately at the same location from the crack tip, as shown in Figure 1. For smaller specimens also tested at the same temperature, the dynamic strains should be measured closer to the crack tip but sufficiently away from the crack tip plastic zone in order to avoid superposed nonlinear effects in the otherwise elastic analysis.

When the notched bend specimens are used to measure higher K_{ID} at higher test temperature, larger test specimens may be required for valid K_{ID} data. The accompanying increase in plastic zone size with increasing toughness may thus require a shift away from the crack tip of the monitoring strain gage in order to avoid the larger plastic zone. In any event, further detailed elasto-plastic dynamic finite element analyses of such tougher material as well as of the smaller specimen described above should provide the necessary information regarding the optimum positioning of the strain gage.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Limited comparisons between measured and calculated dynamic strains near the crack tip indicate that the dynamic finite element model in this paper is a good representation of the three-point bend test under the impact test conditions considered in this paper.
2. Loss' procedure of computing the dynamic stress intensity factor up to dynamic fracture initiation is an accurate and simple procedure.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The dynamic finite element analysis of DT specimen was initiated at the University of Washington under the Office of Naval Research Contract Number 00014-76-C-0600 NR 064-478. Subsequent numerical computations were conducted

at the University of Maine, Orono, under institutional funding. The experimental results were generated at the Naval Research Laboratory under the support of Nuclear Regulatory Commission and the Office of Naval Research. The authors gratefully acknowledge the support received from these multiple sources.

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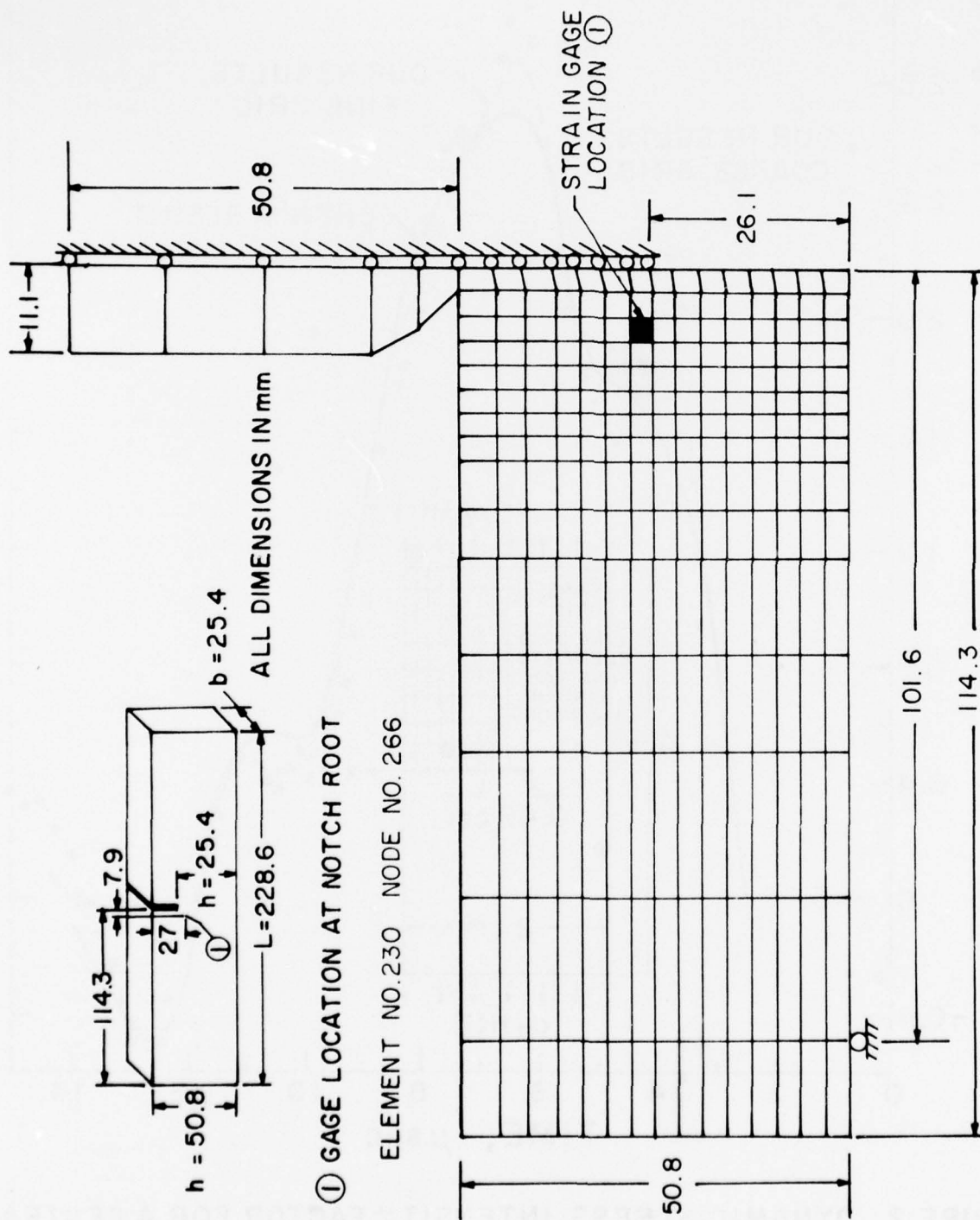


FIGURE 1. A533B STEEL THREE - POINT BEND SPECIMEN NO. 2 .

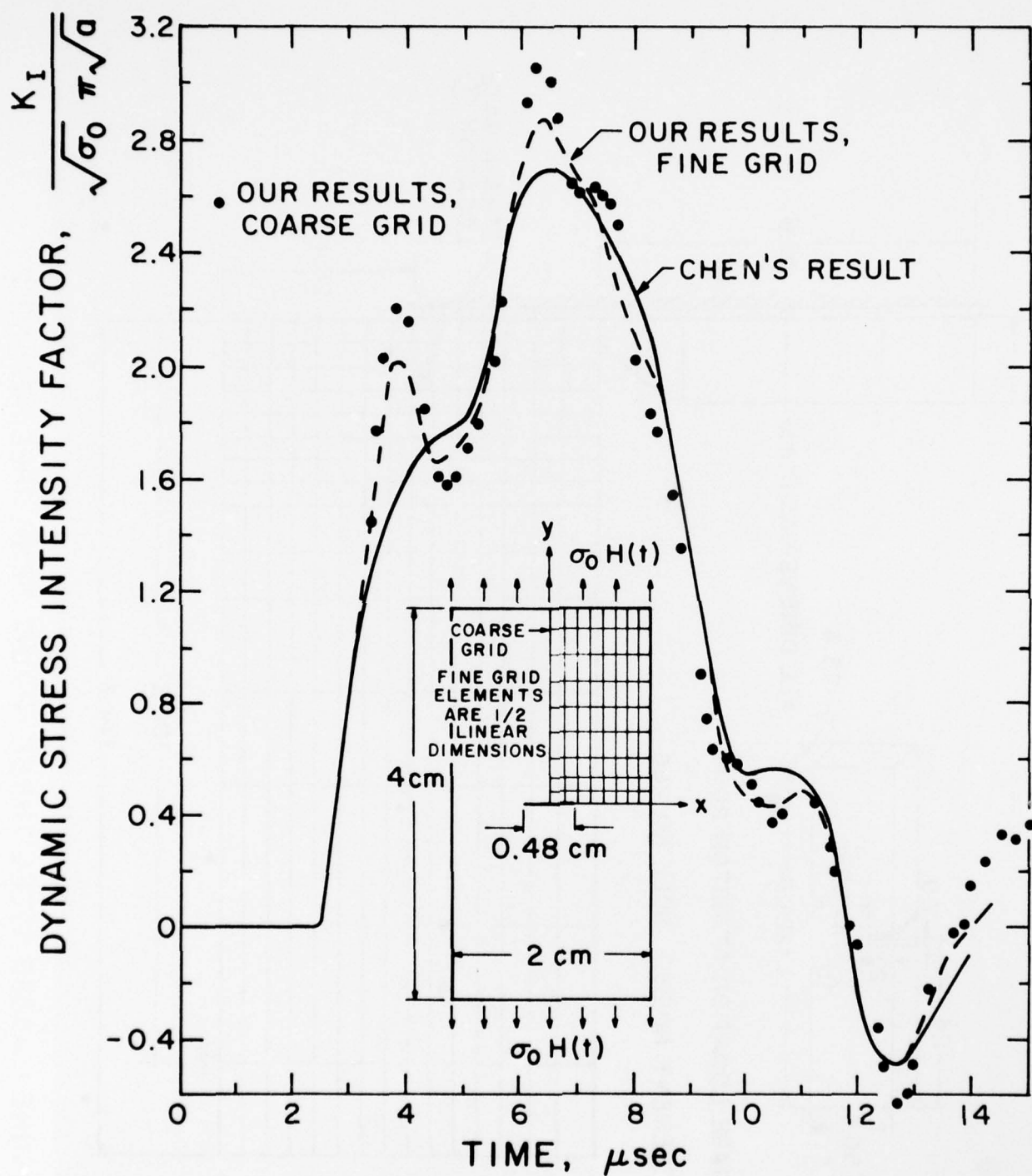


FIGURE 2. DYNAMIC STRESS INTENSITY FACTOR FOR A CENTRALLY CRACKED STRIP SUBJECTED TO STEP-LOADED EDGE-TENSION.

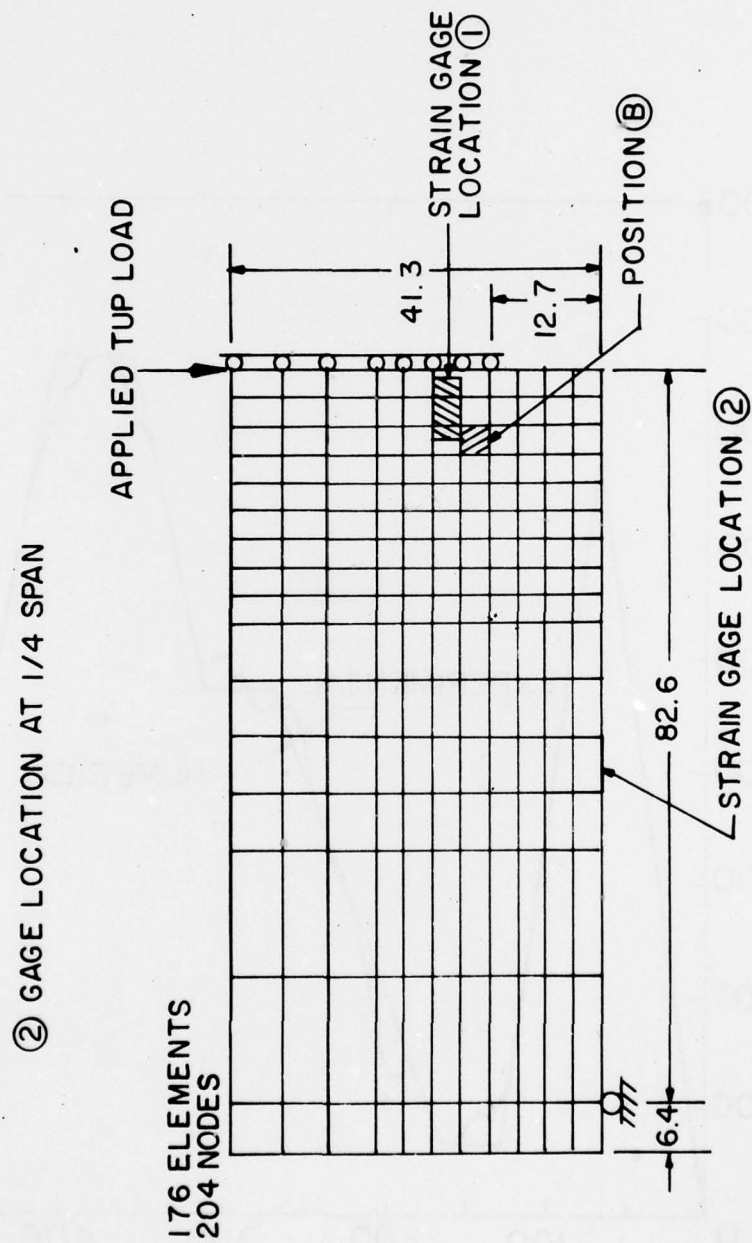
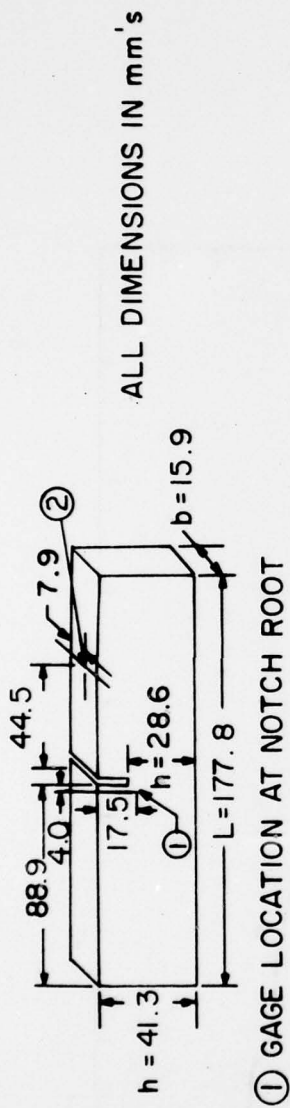


FIGURE 3. 6061 ALUMINUM DYNAMIC TEAR SPECIMEN.

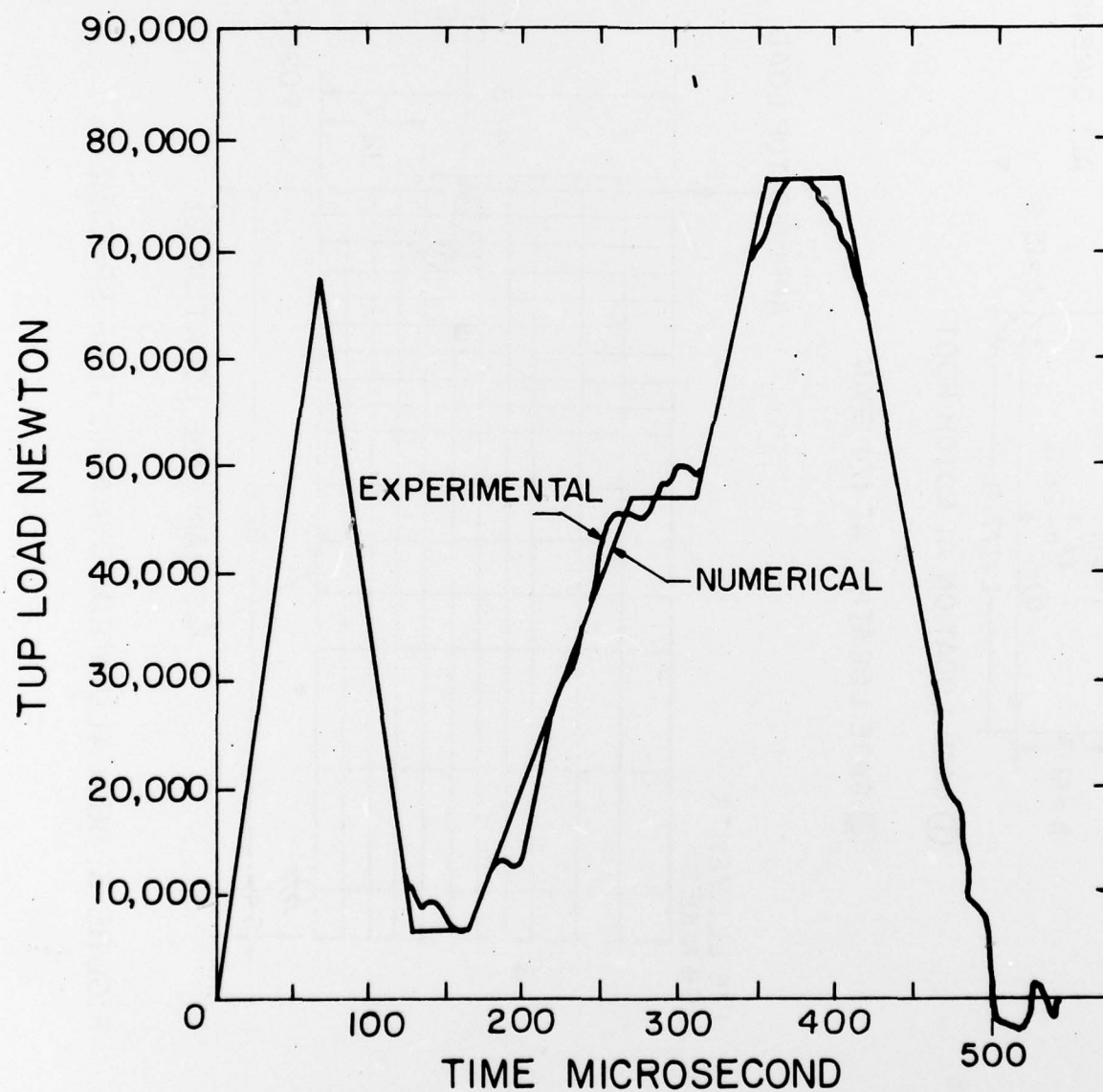


FIGURE 4. TUP LOAD FOR A533B STEEL BEND SPECIMEN NO.1 TEST TEMPERATURE 10°C (50°F).

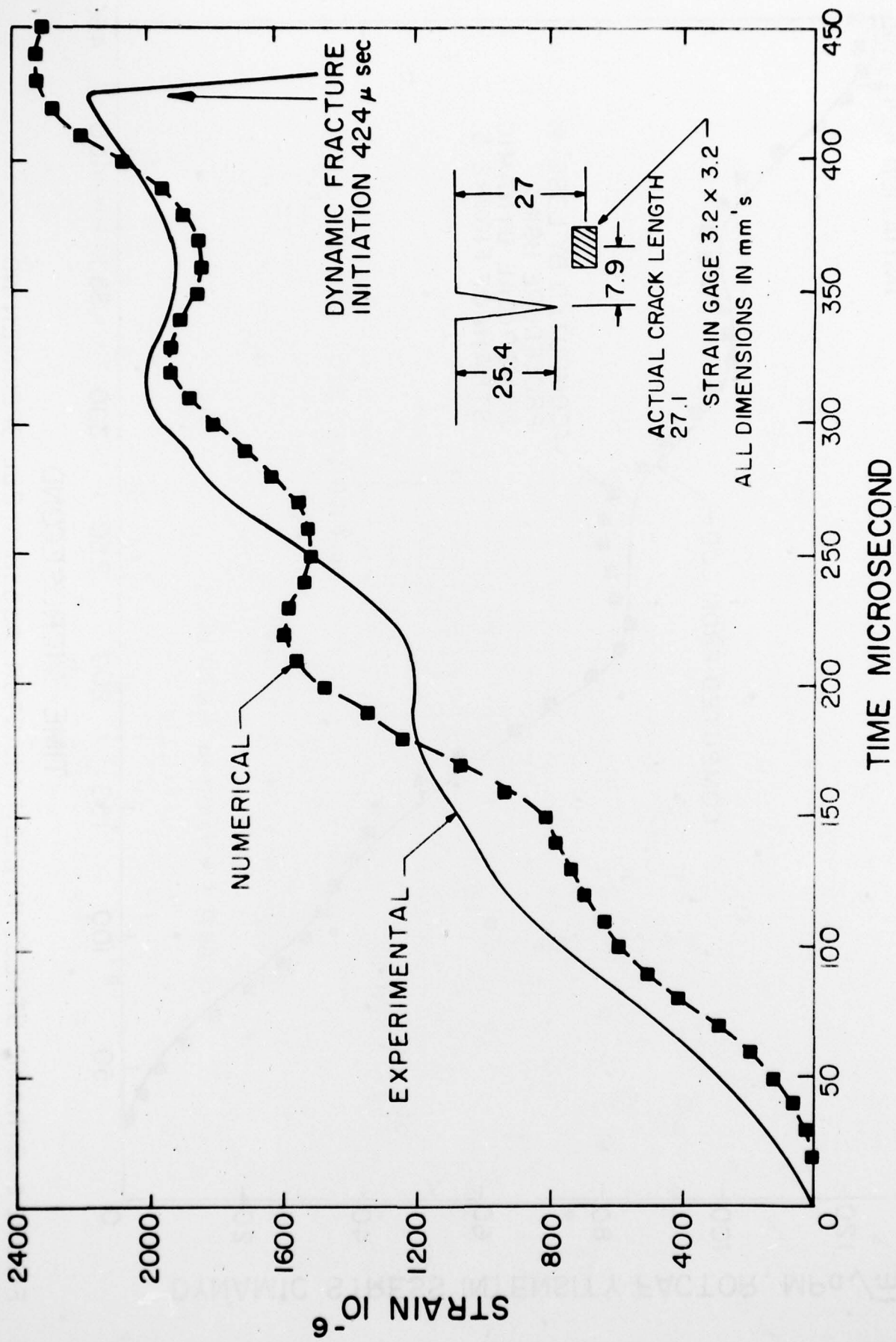


FIGURE 5. DYNAMIC STRAIN AT LOCATION 1, A533B STEEL BEND SPECIMEN NO. 1.

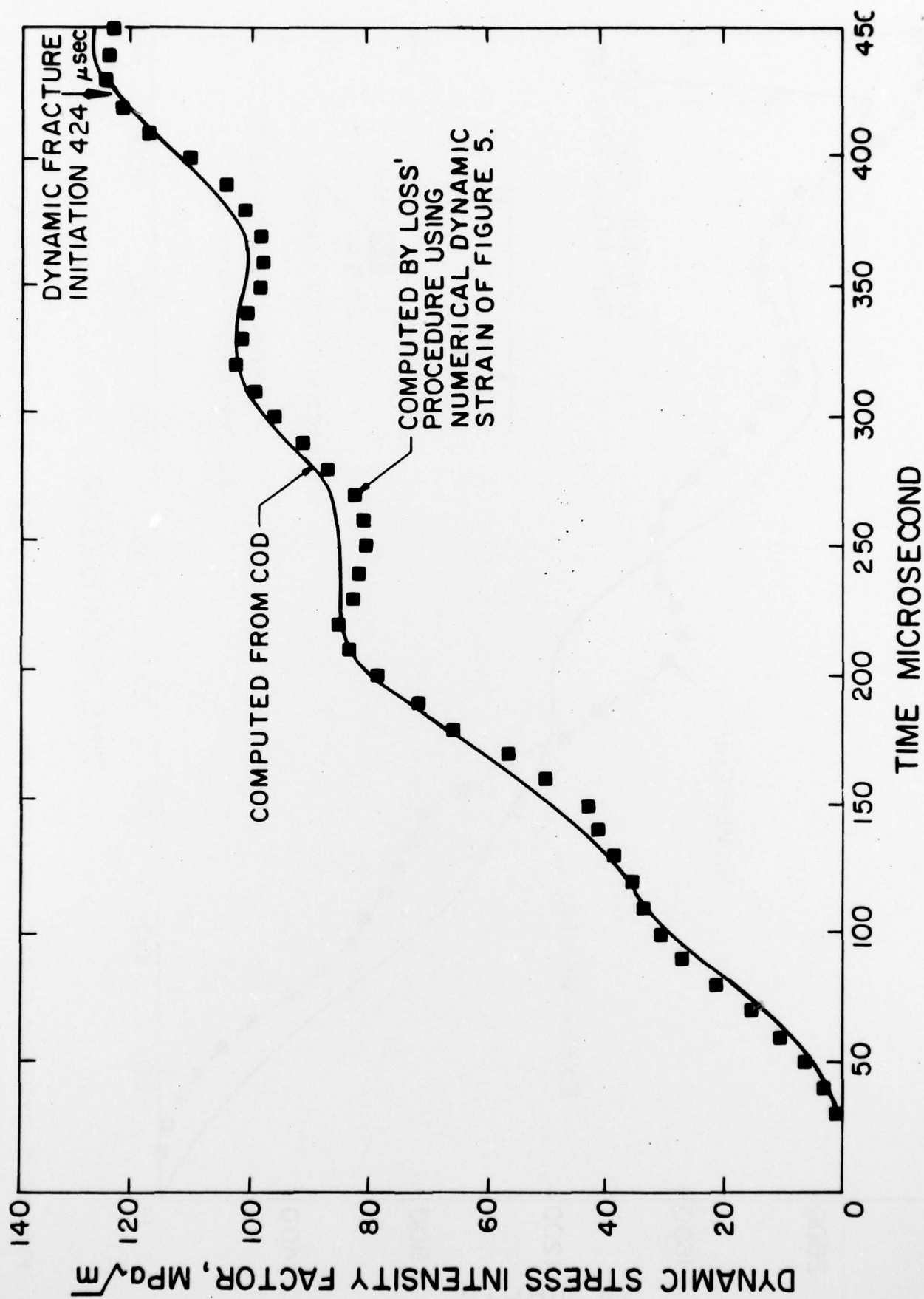


FIGURE 6. DYNAMIC STRESS INTENSITY FACTOR, A533B STEEL SPECIMEN NO 1.

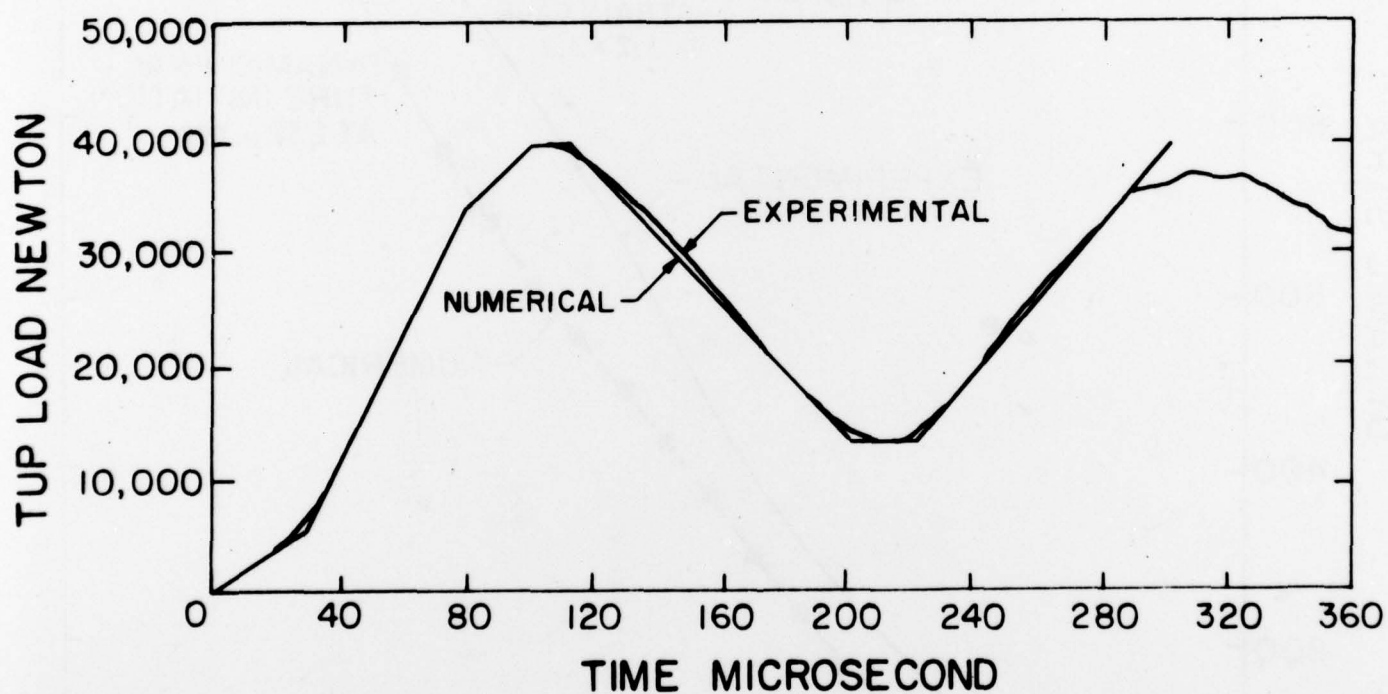


FIGURE 7. TUP LOAD, A533B STEEL BEND SPECIMEN NO. 2 TEST TEMPERATURE (-17.70°C) 0°F.

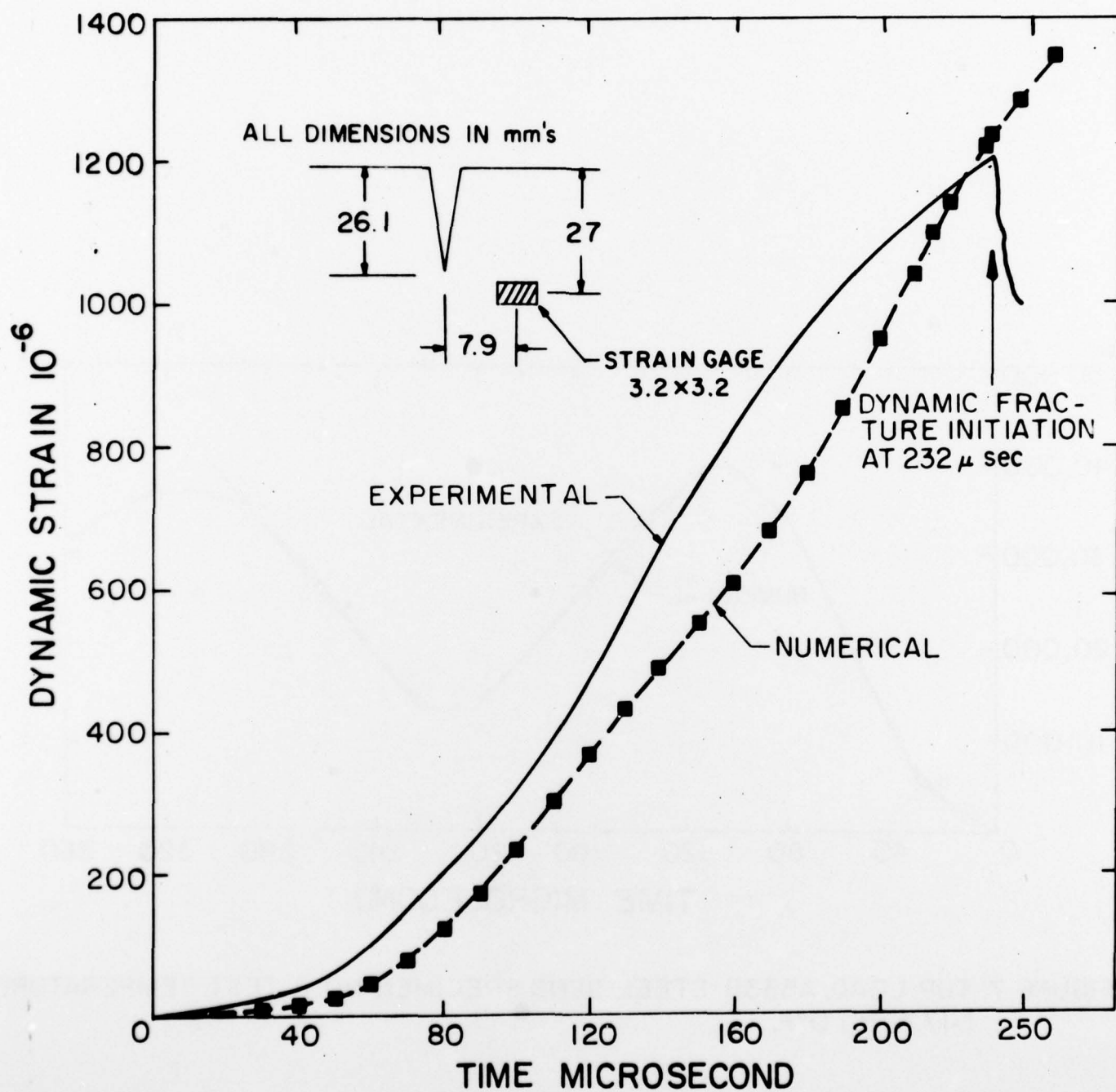


FIGURE 8. DYNAMIC STRAIN AT LOCATION ①, A533B BEND SPECIMEN NO.2

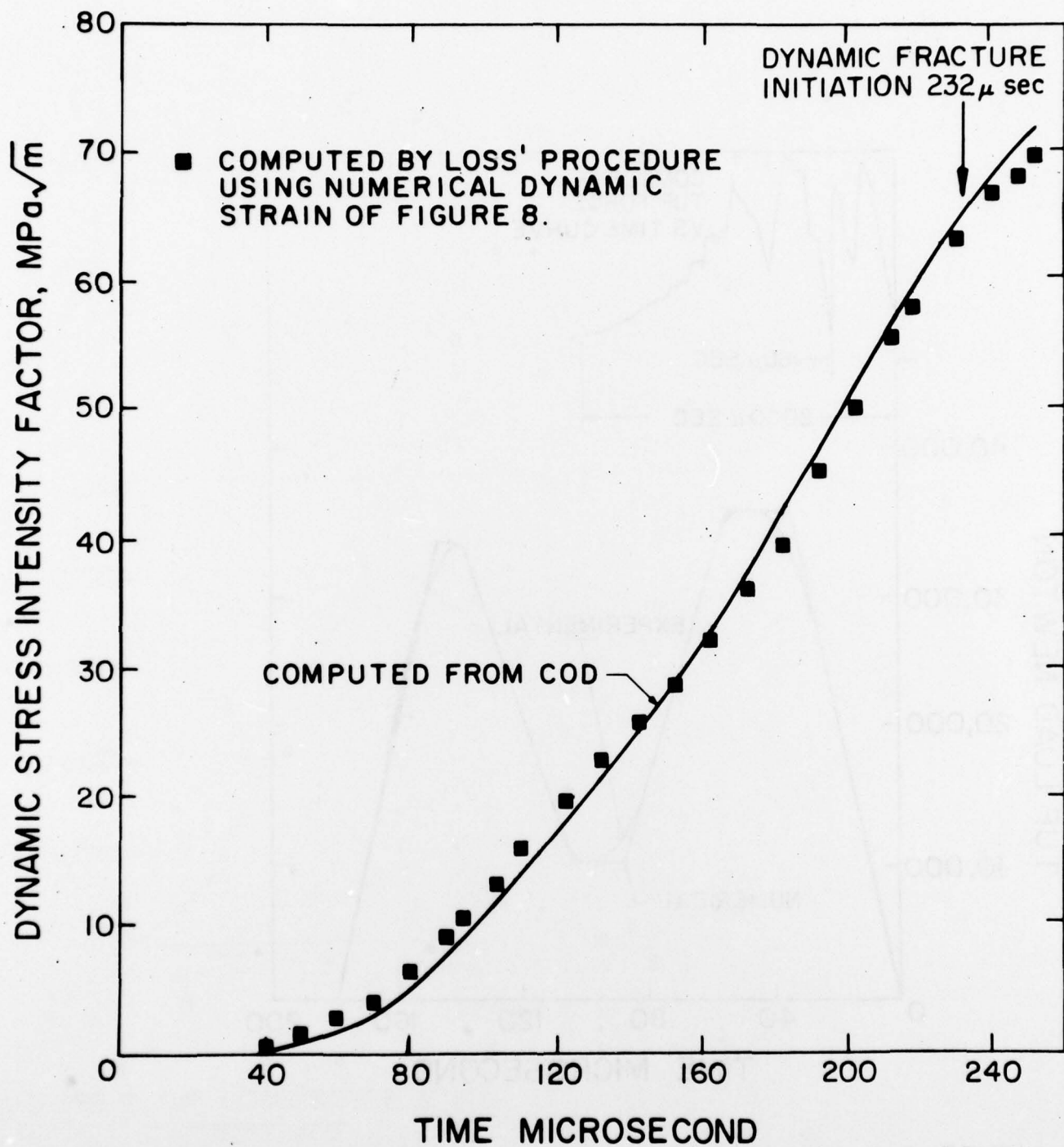


FIGURE 9. DYNAMIC STRESS INTENSITY FACTOR, A533B STEEL BEND SPECIMEN NO. 2.

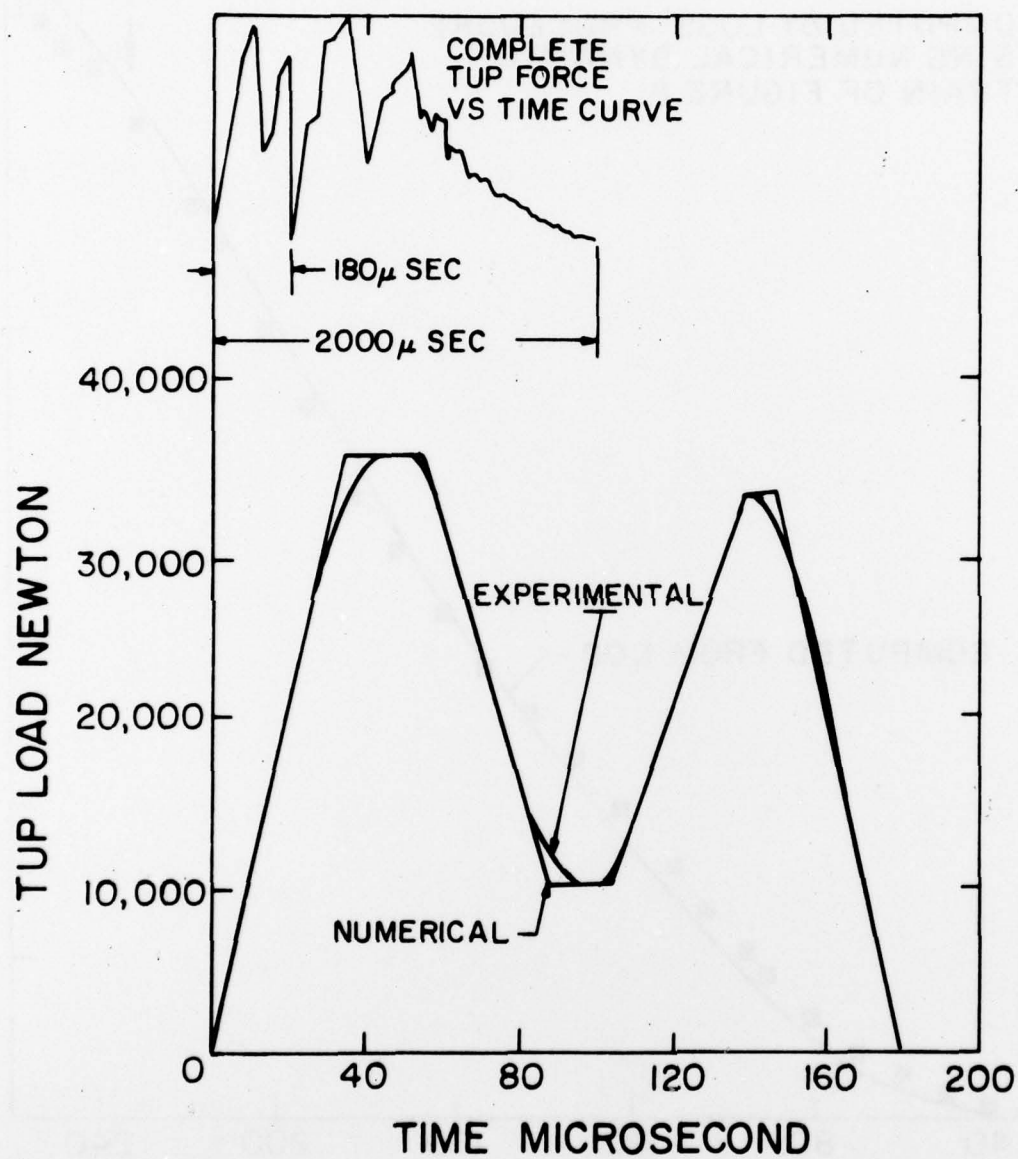


FIGURE 10. TUP LOAD, 6061 ALUMINUM DT SPECIMEN. TEST TEMPERATURE ROOM TEMPERATURE.

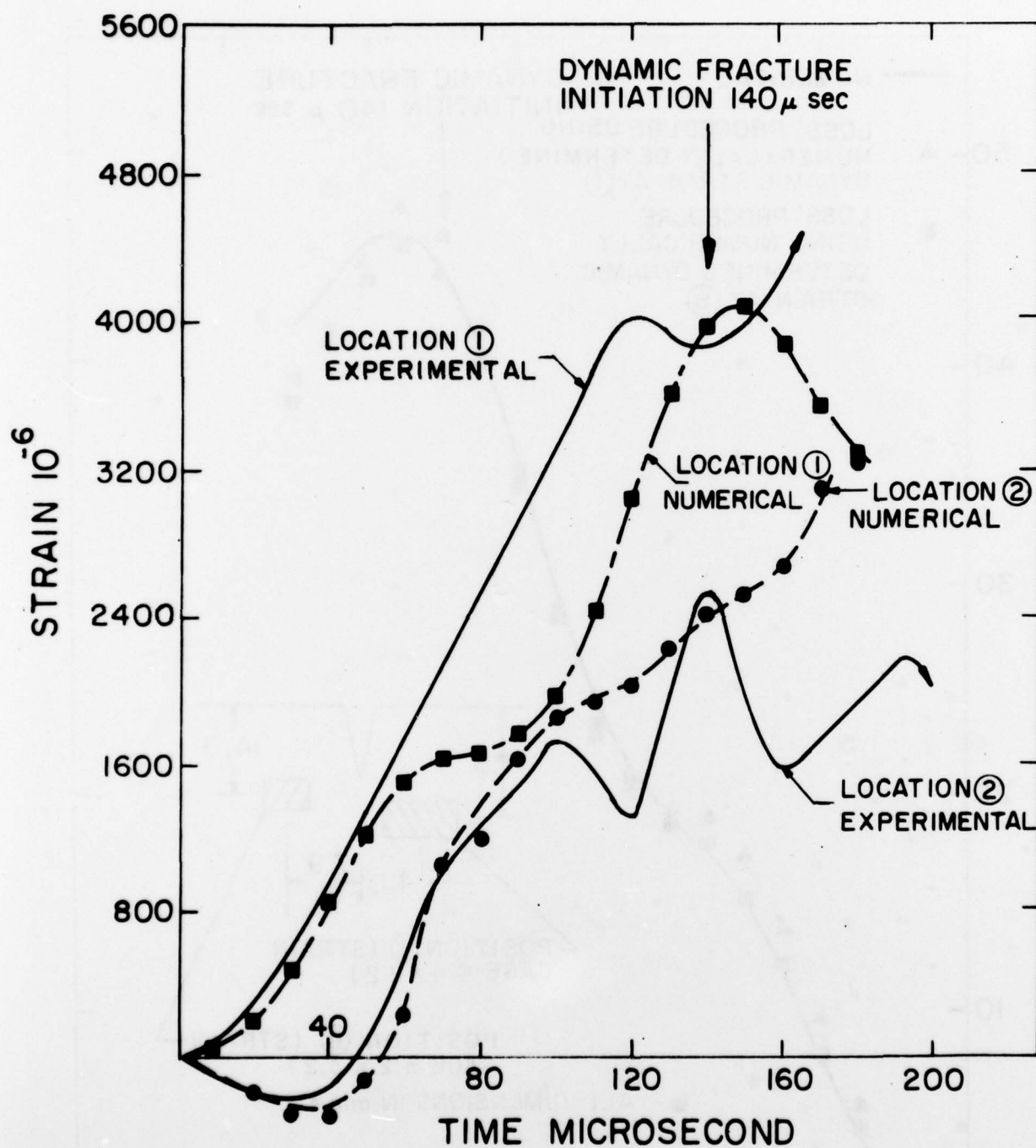


FIGURE II. DYNAMIC STRAINS AT LOCATIONS ① AND ②, 6061 ALUMINUM SPECIMEN.

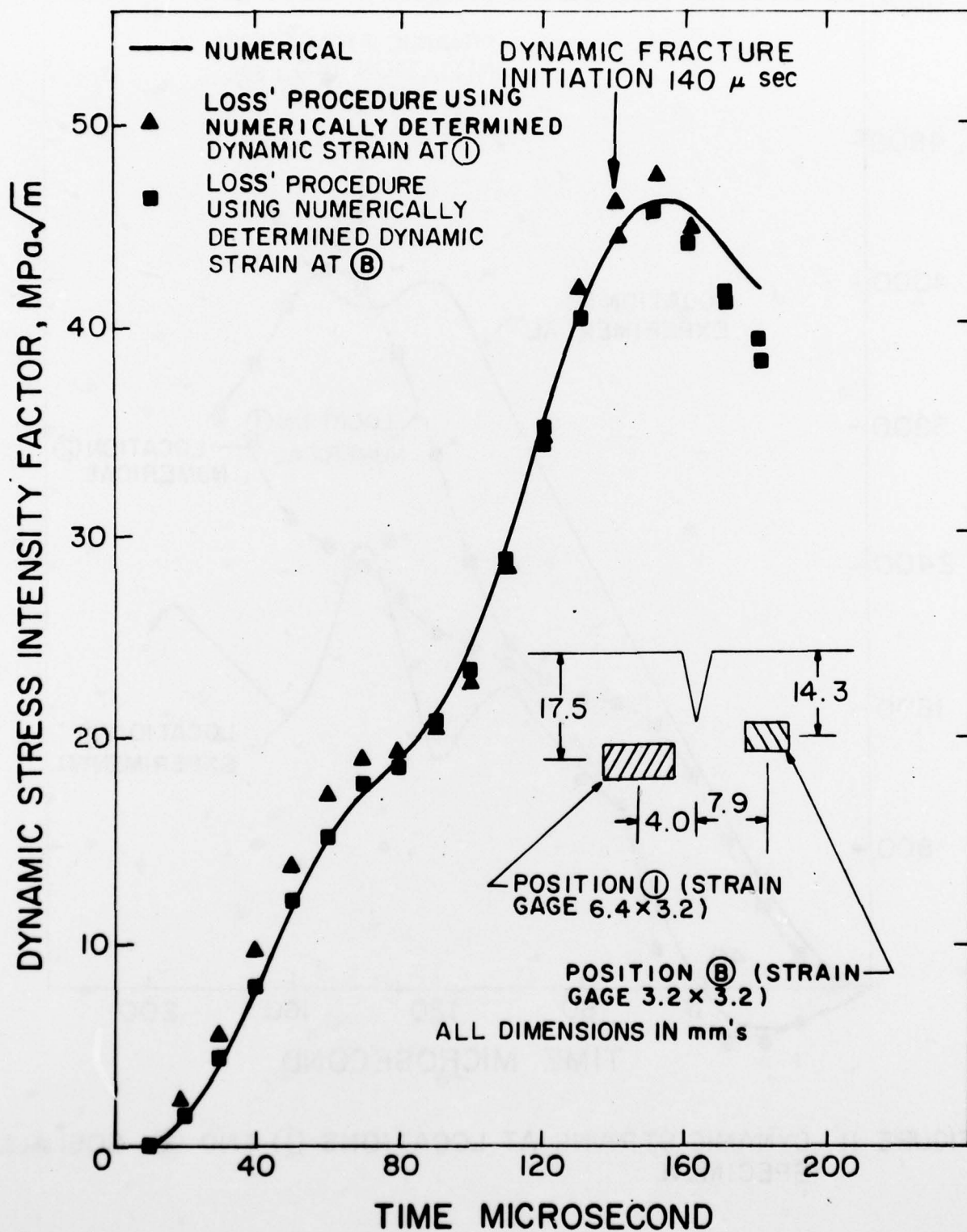


FIGURE 12. DYNAMIC STRESS INTENSITY FACTOR, 6061 ALUMINUM DT SPECIMEN.

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REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE		READ INSTRUCTIONS BEFORE COMPLETING FORM
1. REPORT NUMBER TR 33	2. GOVT ACCESSION NO.	3. RECIPIENT'S CATALOG NUMBER
4. TITLE (and Subtitle) Dynamic Fracture Analysis of Notched Bend Specimens		5. TYPE OF REPORT & PERIOD COVERED Interim Report
		6. PERFORMING ORG. REPORT NUMBER 33
7. AUTHOR(s) S. Mall, A.S. Kobayashi and F. J. Loss		8. CONTRACT OR GRANT NUMBER(s) N00014-76-C-0060 NR 064-478
9. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME AND ADDRESS University of Washington Department of Mechanical Engineering, FU-10 Seattle, Washington 98195		10. PROGRAM ELEMENT, PROJECT, TASK AREA & WORK UNIT NUMBERS
11. CONTROLLING OFFICE NAME AND ADDRESS Office of Naval Research Arlington, Virginia 22217		12. REPORT DATE October 1978
		13. NUMBER OF PAGES 21
14. MONITORING AGENCY NAME & ADDRESS (if different from Controlling Office)		15. SECURITY CLASS. (of this report) unclassified
		15a. DECLASSIFICATION/DOWNGRADING SCHEDULE
16. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of this Report) unlimited		
<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: center;"> DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT A Approved for public release Distribution Unlimited </div>		
17. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of the abstract entered in Block 20, if different from Report)		
18. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES		
19. KEY WORDS (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number) Fracture Mechanics, Fracture Dynamics, Crack Propagation, Finite Element Analysis, Dynamic Initiation Fracture Toughness <i>K sub I₀</i>		
20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number) A dynamic finite element code was used to determine dynamic initiation fracture toughness, <i>K_{I0}</i> in 25.4 mm (1 in.) thick notched bend specimens of A533 B steel and a 15.9 mm (5/8 in.) thick dynamic tear (DT) specimen of 6061 aluminum alloy. These specimen types can reflect varying dynamic fracture response due to differences in test temperature, specimen geometry and material as well as notch tip sharpness. Measured load-time histories were applied to the tup as modeled by finite elements and the dynamic stress intensity factor was computed by a calibrated COD procedure. Dynamic stress intensity factors		

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were also computed by the ASTM E-399 procedure using a load based on local dynamic strain measurements and a static K-calibration.

Reasonable agreements between measured and computed dynamic strains in the vicinity of the crack tip verified the accuracy of the dynamic finite element model. The attendant agreement between measured versus computed time-varying dynamic stress intensity factors also verified, for the first time, the applicability of the ASTM E-399 procedure for computing dynamic initiation fracture toughness, K_{Id} on the basis of local dynamic strain measurements.

$K_{sub Id}$

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